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THE MANAGEMENT OF THE POOR.

THAT there always will be poor in all communities, is, we believe, pretty generally acknowledged. It is, however, matter of debate, by what regulations the numbers and sufferings of the poor are most likely to be kept at a low amount. The opinions on this subject are very various and opposite, and the practice is also different in different countries. It is obviously a question for which a settlement is greatly desirable, seeing that the comfort of individuals and of communities in so great a measure depends on it.

It is scarcely necessary to remind our readers that in England, since the end of the sixteenth century, the poor, both those who are so from helplessness, and those who are so from want of employment, have been supported by a tax on the more fortunate part of the community. From a period near the end of the last century, a special regulation existed, by which wages to a certain amount were guaranteed to labouring men; but as this was found to lead to abuses, it was abolished in 1834. In that year, the general arrangements respecting the poor underwent considerable changes; but the principle remains unaltered, that the poor, without the least regard to the circumstances which have brought about their poverty, are entitled to be supported out of the fruits of the industry of the rest; and supported they are accordingly, in mansions reared throughout the country for the purpose. The total sum required for the support of the poor in England and Wales in 1836, was £6,413,119, being less by two and a third millions than was required in 1833, the last year of the abused system. The expense is calculated to be at the rate of about six shillings per annum for each individual in the whole population. In all the other European states, some provision is made for the poor; but it is only in the northern and some of the German states that there is a legal acknowledgment, as in England, of the right of every person to be rescued from destitution by the public; in others, namely, Holland, Belgium, France, Portugal, the Sardinian States, Austria, Greece, and Turkey, the applicant's legal right does not seem to be so distinctly acknowledged, though provision is nevertheless largely, and in some cases amply, made from public funds for his relief. In Ireland, till very lately, there was no sort of legal provision for the poor; and in Scotland, though a legal provision has long existed, it is on a scale far beneath that of England.

What has brought the subject at this time under our attention, is the recent publication of a pamphlet, bearing particularly upon the management of the poor in Scotland,* but in reality illustrating the whole question in a manner calculated to arrest general attention. The author is Dr W. P. Alison, professor of medicine in the Edinburgh University, and late President of the Edinburgh College of Physicians—a gentleman whose name has not been heard in connection with the agitation of any of the great questions of the day, but who has at length deemed it proper to step out of comparative privacy in a cause which must interest every philanthropic mind. We readily own that, though we have long suspected great errors on this subject, we were never fully aware of them till we perused this admirable emanation of just reasoning and genuine benevolence.

In Scotland, the whole funds raised as a systematic provision for the poor amount to only about £140,000 per annum, or about £s. 4d. for every individual in the country, being in proportion less than a fourth of

what is raised in England. A great part of the funds arises from collections at the church-doors; for, though there is an act empowering the raising of a rate, it is acted on only in about half of the number of parishes, and there very hesitatingly and inadequately. Practically, the helpless poor get, in most parishes, some small weekly pittance, generally about a shilling, often as low as ninepence, and even sixpence (the allowance for children being proportionally less); from which they are expected to support themselves in their own homes. In many parishes there is absolutely no relief of any kind, and in none is the claim of persons possessing health and strength admitted, however destitute they may be from circumstances. There are workhouses only at two places, and there the average annual sum expended on the support of paupers is about £6. The smallness of all these provisions is not to be rashly attributed to want of feeling on the part of the nation. There is in Scotland a strong prejudice against all but self-dependent modes of existence. It is a general opinion that all succour held out to any but the helpless poor, is productive of evil instead of good, even to the poor themselves. This succour is thought to be particularly detrimental, when it is the result of a fixed assessment or rate, for then it is supposed that the poor are led more particularly to depend on the public charity instead of their own exertions. The smallness of the sums given to the helpless can only be attributed to this general prejudice against pauper relief, for it may be presumed, that, if there were another feeling in the case, the ordinary slender funds would be augmented by a sufficient assessment. What proves very strikingly, that opinion, and not want of benevolent feeling, is the main cause of the small provision, is, that the poor have as great a disinclination to ask public charity as the wealthier classes to give it. This is, in the rural parishes particularly, always a last resource, and one which is never resorted to without a pang of the severest kind. A wish to keep up a spirit of independence in the humbler classes, is perhaps one of the main sources of that anxiety which is always manifested by the wealthy to restrict by all possible means the amount of the funds devoted to the relief of the poor.

The object of Dr Alison's pamphlet is to prove that this system of restriction is attended by evils which ought to make it a subject of shame rather than pride to the community. He contends that, in large towns more especially, it is productive of wide scenes of misery, shocking to all benevolent feeling, and positively dangerous in some respects to the rest of the inhabitants. He shows that in Edinburgh, Glasgow, Dublin, and other large cities, where there is no thorough system of relief for the poor, fever has been of late years prevalent to a degree quite unknown in any English town; a fact which must in the main be ascribed to the wretched condition of great hordes of people gathered in the meaner parts of those towns. Will it be believed that, in two late years, one-sixteenth of the population of Edinburgh, and one-sixth of the population of Glasgow, were affected by dangerous fevers! The average number of cases treated in the hospitals of Glasgow during the last seven years, has been 1842, while in Leeds, where the inhabitants are a little more than a half, the average for the same period has been 274; and in Newcastle and Gateshead, where the inhabitants are about a fourth, only 39; there being in Bath, during the same period, "only a few cases." It is true, that want of cleanliness, bad ventilation, and so forth, are among the causes of fever; but Dr Alison contends, and apparently with success, that destitution is the main and primary cause. He also shows that, as fever is more apt to

carry off the adult than the young, it burdens the public with immense numbers of orphans, many of them the children of persons who, if spared, would have kept them above public charity. Thus, so far, the restrictive system seems to spread, instead of limiting, the evil of pauperism. When a fatal epidemic breaks out in one of the towns in question, subscriptions are generally raised by the wealthy classes to succour the suffering poor; and the evil is thereby perhaps alleviated in some, but only in a slight degree. The victims of the pestilence have been prepared for it by years of unrelieved suffering, and that generosity which once might have prevented disease, is now unable to arrest its calamitous progress.

The popular doctrine in Scotland is that advanced by some political economists, that systematic relief for the poor leads to habits of improvidence, and encourages marriages amongst persons unable to support their offspring, thus tending to increase, instead of diminishing, pauperism. Dr Alison, on the contrary, maintains that "poor-laws, such as exist in England, do not interfere with moral restraint, but support and strengthen it; and that moral restraint is nowhere so feeble, and population (in a long-inhabited country) nowhere makes such rapid progress, as where there is no legal provision for the destitute, and where therefore the prospect of destitution is always, clear, obvious, and immediate." He appeals in the first place to experience. "In England a poor-rate has been generally enforced for 250 years, and in some respects been carried to an injudicious height during at least fifty years. We know that the population of a country may be doubled in twenty years. There has therefore been abundance of time for the English poor-laws, if they really afford the 'direct, constant, and systematic encouragement to marriage' which has been supposed, to cause such an increase of the population there, and such an amount *not only of pauperism, but of misery*, consequent on redundant population, as would have put beyond all doubt the truth of the theory. But how stands the fact? * * * We find that the population of England has kept strictly within her proper limits, while that of Ireland has so completely outrun them, that famines in Ireland are of nearly periodical recurrence, the lives of the people are continually shortened by cold and hunger, and the overflow of her population has pauperised both England and Scotland, besides extending to America." England (in the opinion of Mr Senior) stands in the most favourable position of all the countries of Europe with regard to wages. The average annual expenditure of her labouring families is £33, while that of Ireland is £5, 8s. The proportion of the annual births to the whole population in England is small. The number of paupers is as one in ten, while in Ireland there are 2,300,000 people who are wholly or partially mendicants, out of an entire population of about seven millions. The difference is here too great, Dr Alison justly remarks, to allow of a supposition that the pauperism of Ireland is attributable solely to circumstances independent of pauper relief.

"It is true," he remarks, "that the lower Irish are a rude and imperfectly civilised people, but they are not so illiterate as many of the English poor, in whom the principle of moral restraint is much more powerful; and the law of nature, by which the improvidence of parents leads to the destitution of children, is, as Mr Malthus himself observes, 'intelligible to the humblest capacity.' Even if the advocates of the theory resort to the extravagant supposition that there is something in the Irish character specifically different from all others in this respect, and making them reckless and improvident where others would be pru-

* Observations on the Management of the Poor in Scotland, and of its Effects on the Health of the Great Towns. By William Pulteney Alison, M.D., F.R.S.E., Professor of the Institutes of Medicine in the University of Edinburgh. Blackwood and Sons.

dent, this will not avail them, for any one who chooses to make the observation will see, that among the educated poor of Scotland the same union of reckless improvidence with extreme destitution, is uniformly found; and we shall see afterwards that the same holds of other countries.

The truth is, that below a certain grade of poverty, the preventive check of moral restraint has no power. Twenty-five years of observation of the habits of the poor have shown me, that there are none among whom population makes so rapid progress as those who see continually around them examples of utter destitution and misery. In such circumstances, men hardly look forward to the future more than animals. It is easy for us to say, that by cutting off from a poor family any prospect of relief, in case of destitution, we can make them careful and prudent. The practical result is widely different. Another alternative is uniformly embraced. They *lower their habits*; and those who have not been accustomed to observe them, are not aware how much reduction of comfort the family of a labouring man, disabled or deprived of employment, may undergo, and not only life be preserved, but the capacity for occasional irregular and precarious employment continue. Their better clothes may be pawned, their furniture and bed-clothes may be sold, they can lie on straw or shavings of wood, sometimes on 'bare boards,' and never undress; two or more families may be crowded into a single room, and struggle to pay the rent among them. Such associations of 'lone women,' who have only occasional employment, and of unemployed and disabled men, widows and orphans, are continually formed. They gather cinders on the streets late at night and early in the morning, they beg for bread, wherever they are permitted, among the rich, and if repelled from them, they seek for sympathy among the poor. Three meals in the week will support life for many weeks. I have known instances, where I had satisfactory moral evidence that the mothers of such families have submitted, for the sake of their children, to such privations for months together. If they fall sick, as after a time they infallibly do, the medical charities come to their relief. Thus, almost without visible means of subsistence, many of the poorest families in this and other great towns manage to pass the winter, while in summer they find precarious and desultory employment in fields and gardens. Now, if you mark the conduct of people who have fallen thus low, or watch the future progress of children brought up in this state of misery and degradation, you look in vain for the principle of moral restraint, or for indications of prudential motives, counteracting the natural tendency of human passions. Many of the children die miserably in early youth, and those who survive are uniformly reckless and improvident. The daughters of families thus circumstanced receive no education which fits them even for service; they are almost uniformly mothers at the age of twenty, and the progress of population is thus rendered most rapid in that portion of society which lies nearest the verge of absolute starvation.

On the other hand, when men are preserved from this state of hopeless and abject destitution, they all (or with few and trifling exceptions) gradually fall, more or less, under the dominion of *artificial wants*, and form to themselves a *standard of comfort*, from which they will never willingly descend, and to maintain which they will keep themselves under a degree of restraint unknown to those of the poor, who are continually struggling to obtain the first necessities of life. Such observations have been very frequently made on a small scale by many others as well as myself, and they seem to me amply to confirm and easily to explain the result of the grand experiment in which Ireland and England have been engaged during the last two centuries. Indeed, the simple fact, already mentioned, of the habitual *cleanliness* of most of the English poor, even in the most pauperised counties, as compared with those either of Ireland or Scotland, is of itself sufficient to show where the preventive check is in fullest operation.*

These views are striking, and they are supported by the experience of other countries. In the Azores, where there are no laws for granting succour to the poor, unless they be sick, "poverty does not appear," we learn from authentic evidence, "to check matrimony: in general, the poor people marry at an early age." The same, we find, is the case in Sardinia, one of the countries where there is no adequate legal provision for the poor. The swarms of Neapolitan lazaroni need only be alluded to. On the other hand, in Denmark, Holland, and Prussia, where the provision for the poor is ample, there is comparatively much prudence with regard to contracting marriage. Again, the English peasantry eat wheaten bread, and maintain a generally high standard of comfort—a circumstance quite incompatible with the theory of a debasement or a redundancy of population by means of the poor-laws; whereas the Scotch are content with plainer fare, and the Irish live on the humblest of all esculent substances.

"The whole secret of the preventive check," says Dr Alison, "appears to me to consist in the growth and support of *artificial wants* among the poor. Now, in order to understand how these are fostered by the practical application of the poor-laws, it is necessary to look chiefly to their effect on the *rising generation*. Take the common case of a labourer dying in middle life, and leaving a family of young children; or dis-

abled by injury or disease, and unable to provide for his family. If this happens in Ireland, his widow or family has no resources but in vagrancy and casual charity; and in Scotland, the legal relief granted is often a mere pittance: the children are brought up in misery, they cannot possibly acquire any artificial wants, or look forward to the enjoyment of any comforts, and all experience (if on so large a scale as to be freed from accidental fallacies) teaches, that in these circumstances there is no moral or prudential check on their increase. But in England they fall under the protection of the law; and they are fixed to their parishes, and brought up under the eye of persons more or less interested in their welfare; their habits are prevented from degenerating; they grow up under the influence of artificial wants, and would feel themselves degraded if they were voluntarily to part with such of the comforts of life as they have hitherto enjoyed, and descend to the filth and penury of the Irish cabin. They live on wheaten bread, as Mr Malthus himself tells us, and are practically content to remain in smaller numbers than they might have been, had they been satisfied with coarser fare. Experience proves that their numbers do not become redundant, and that their standard of comfort in after-life does not degenerate from that of their fathers.

That the artificial wants, which nature never fails to awaken in the minds of all young persons who are brought up in tolerable comfort, are in reality an infinitely more effectual check on early marriages and excessive population, than the mere prospect of want of food is in the minds of persons brought up in utter destitution, mast, I think, appear obvious to any one who reflects on the difference in this respect between the higher and lower ranks of society in all countries. How many men are there, in the different ranks which intervene between the lowest and the highest, who purposely defer the period of marriage until they shall be able, not merely to maintain a family, but to maintain it on that precise level on which they are themselves moving, and who die childless before they can accomplish their design! How many women of these ranks pass their lives in single blessedness, not because they are afraid of starvation for themselves or their offspring, but because taste, or vanity, or sundry other considerations, forbid their forming unions with men whom they consider their inferiors! How many motives of filial affection, of duty, of self-respect, of hope, of pride, of avarice, of ambition, combine to determine the question of marriage, or celibacy, in the ranks of which we now speak! These ranks, in reality, never become redundant; many die without offspring, but few of them descend into the lowest rank, and none have their lives shortened by mere privations. The lower in society that these complex motives operate, the more effectual is the preventive check. That some of them are in full operation in the English paupers, and restrain their increase, the facts already stated sufficiently prove; but which of them finds place in the Irish cabin!?

After some quotations from another author, showing that, in the interval between the Reformation and the commencement of the poor-law, the peasantry of England were nearly in the same condition as those of Ireland, with respect to mendicancy, misery, and agrarian disturbances, Dr Alison continues: "I assert, then, with confidence, that all experience teaches, not only that unrelieved suffering is quite ineffectual to teach prudence or moral restraint to the poor, but that it has uniformly the very opposite effect; and, on the other hand, that the natural effect of well-timed and well-directed public charity is not only to relieve suffering, but to prevent degradation, and so to support and strengthen the only check on excessive population which either policy or humanity will allow us to contemplate. It is not the fear of lowering, but the hope of maintaining or bettering their condition, which really constitutes that preventive check, and that hope is continually maintained among the poor, by the certainty of assistance in distress, in circumstances where it would otherwise have been extinguished in despair. The English poor have become cautious, just as they have become cleanly, not in consequence of positive laws or direct exhortations, but by the silent operation of those feelings of human nature which always raise the standard of comfort among those who are steadily preserved from the degradation of hopeless poverty."

Dr Alison meets successfully a number of minor objections which have been taken to poor-laws, as that they diminish voluntary benevolence, that they rank up the rich and poor in hostility against each other, and that they have an injurious effect on the application of capital and the wages of labour. We are not able to follow him through these reasonings, but cannot resist advertiring to one triumphant fact on the first point—that, during the famine in the west of Ireland in 1822, £100,000 was subscribed for its relief in rate-oppressed England, while the land-proprietors of one of the Irish counties where the distress was experienced, could only raise one hundred! Our author also enters into arguments to prove the direct practical advantages of legal provision, namely, its being much more effectual for the permanent relief of misery in the lower orders, and much more just towards the higher orders; its acting much more uniformly, its amount being much more easily adapted to the real wants of the poor, and its kind being in each case more properly suited to their character and circumstances; and its securing an interest in the concerns of the poor throughout the whole community. He

finally recommends the required changes in the Scottish poor-laws, the most important of which is an uniform assessment sufficient to give relief to the whole of the poor, not only those who are sick or impotent, but those who from any cause are destitute, and this relief to be of sufficient amount, instead of being, as at present, a kind of mockery of the wants to which it professes to be applied. We greatly regret that we are unable to transfer any of the excellent arguments brought forward by Dr Alison against the common but short-sighted doctrine as to moral or other merits being necessary on the part of poor applicants to constitute a claim for relief. His views on this subject exactly meet those which we have oftened once advocated in this journal. There are few things which have more forcibly impressed us throughout life than the unreasonableness of expecting all kinds of virtues from human beings when they are unfortunate, and *only then*.

We conclude with an earnest hope that the excellent purpose which this pamphlet has directly in view will not be disappointed, but that the attention which it has already excited in the more thinking circles of our two largest cities will be felt ere long over the whole country, and that, all existing prejudices being undermined, it will be the means of introducing a system of poor-relief more agreeable to our pretensions as a Christian community.

THE MULETEER.

A STORY OF RECENT OCCURRENCE IN SPAIN.*

One evening in the autumn of the year 1837, Ciriaco Martinez, the muleteer or carrier who passed regularly between Madrid and Alicante, was seated at the gate of a hostelry near the western outport of the last mentioned city. Ciriaco was almost ready to set out on his stated journey, one of a rather momentous character in the existing state of the country, and he was now enjoying himself for the last time with a few of his intimates, who were seated around him, smoking, and drinking from a leather or goatskin bottle, already somewhat flaccid with passing from hand to hand. Ciriaco was in high and jovial spirits, but he still had an eye to business. Taking a long pull at the skin, he exclaimed, "Hollo! uncle Melchor! master landlord! hang me if I shall put up any more at this hostelry of yours. Your wine is as sour as vinegar, and your Babieca up there, your sign of the Cid's horse, brings me no good luck. Here have I two of my mules yet without their load; neither passenger nor burden have I got to go upon them. Hollo!" continued he, addressing the casual passers by, "who will go to Madrid? It shall never be said that Ciriaco Martinez went with an idle mule from Alicante. Who will go to Pavin, Monfort, Monover, Vecla, or Albaete? Come forward; you will find me accommodating."

The latter part of this address of the jolly muleteer did not pass unnoticed. A stranger stepped forward, and said to Ciriaco, "When do you expect to arrive in Madrid?" "In nine days," replied the muleteer; "that is to say, friend, I am bound by my engagement to deliver my goods at that time in Madrid. But, to tell you the truth, I always make a little reservation, and say, to myself at least, 'if time and tide permit.' " "Perhaps your goods would be inconvenient to a traveller, if he were to engage one of your mules," said the stranger; "are you heavily loaded? What kind of merchandise have you?" The muleteer pointed to a shed behind him, where his packages were lying under cover, and exclaimed, "For my part, I don't know what sort of stuff I am to carry, but if you are curious to know, you may look at these bales and packs. There is something written upon them, but I only know whether they are to go. That is my part of the business; and, besides, the fact is, that my eyes are too weak to read handwriting." The light-hearted muleteer winked as he said this to his companions, who immediately set up a loud laugh, knowing that poor Ciriaco, like themselves probably, was no great scholar. Meanwhile, the stranger went forward to the pack, on a number of which were written, in pretty large letters, the words,

Vasos de Plata
y Pala cra
Sacadens de
hierro y otros.

The meaning of this superscription, though somewhat obscured by the mode of putting it down, might readily have been made out to be, "Vessels of silver and virgin gold, with fancy-work of iron, and other articles."

After the stranger had looked attentively at the bales, he said to Ciriaco, "When do you set out for Madrid?" "To-morrow evening," was the reply. "Very well," said the stranger; "I do not know yet, whether it will be convenient for me to go with you or not, but I hope you will have company by the way in any case."

* The above story is a version, without any alteration in the important points, of one which appeared in the Spanish journals within these few years. The facts of the narrative, for the reader must understand that the whole story is true, came out on the trial of the parties concerned, before the criminal courts of Alicante.

On the evening of the following day, according to purpose, Ciriaco had his mules at the gate of the hostelry of Babieca, ready to depart. A young and high-spirited horse, the long grey tail of which swept the ground, stood saddled and bridled beside them, being a favourite animal, which Ciriaco preferred to ride while guiding his string of mules on their way. At its saddle-bow hung a gaudy flask, wherewith its master might charm away the toils and weariness of the journey. With a horn slung round his shoulders, and a pistol or two at his belt, Ciriaco himself appeared, mounted his horse, bade a cheerful adieu to his host Melchor, and moved away slowly with his mules, chanting the while the old romance that tells the loves of Almanzor and the fair Zoraida. For a short time the bells of his mules were heard tinkling in unison, but soon Ciriaco and his charge were both out of sight and of sound.

Towards the middle of that same night, the people of the hostelry of Babieca were roused from their quiet slumbers by a violent knocking at the outer gate. The sound was so loud, and so remarkable in its character, that every individual of the household was speedily on foot, under the impression that the gate would be knocked to pieces. On going to it, and opening it, their amazement was great to behold a riderless horse striking the door violently with its hoofs. Their surprise was still greater when they discovered it to be the horse of Ciriaco Martinez. The first thought which struck all, was that Ciriaco had fallen asleep, and had been thrown to the ground by some false step of the animal. They opened the gate wide for the horse to enter. But although it came forward so far as to show that it was covered with foam and streaks of blood, it did not pass into its stable. Wheeling around before they could seize it, the horse set off at full speed in the direction whence it had come. The creature was wild and excited, and the blood which had been seen on its sides led the landlord Melchor to the sad conclusion that some serious evil had befallen the merry-hearted Ciriaco.

With the first dawn of morning, Melchor was out with two companions on the road which Ciriaco had followed in his journey. After travelling some leagues, they observed one part of the road to be peculiarly marked and trampled. They also saw footprints leading aside from the place, and, pursuing them, they reached the middle of a piece of untilled ground. There, under a rude and hastily piled heap of stones and furze, they discovered the corpse of the unfortunate Ciriaco Martinez. He had received a shot through the body, and his head, besides, was horribly mutilated. Melchor immediately went and alarmed the people of the two neighbouring villages of Monfort and Monover, and a hasty pursuit was commenced in all directions. Judging by the tracks of the missing mules, it was believed that the robbers and murderers had not continued the route to Madrid, but had taken some other course. Other travellers had been on the road, however, and this point was not easily determined. It is possible that the pursuit was not carried far enough; but however this may have been, certain it is, that the authors of poor Ciriaco's murder were not discovered by Melchor and his assistants.

Two or three days after this event, Juan de la Rosa, carrier between Madrid and Cadiz, chanced to be at the village of Caracuel, near Ciudad Real, where the news of the murder had not yet arrived. Juan de la Rosa was accustomed to lodge at the same inn in Madrid with Ciriaco Martinez, and knew him intimately. Great, therefore, was the amazement of Juan to see in the village of Caracuel the mules of his friend under the charge and in the possession of a stranger. He was sure about the mules, and in particular one of them, for he himself had long possessed the animal, and had only sold it to Ciriaco about two months previously. Of the identity of this mule he was perfectly certain. Taking an opportunity to ask the new owner how long he had possessed the mules, Juan received for reply that the other had owned them more than a year. This answer rendered Juan assured that something was amiss, and he informed a magistrate of his suspicions. This functionary went to the inn to examine the stranger, and look at his mules. On being asked to whom the mules belonged, the stranger first said that they belonged to himself, and then, on its being hinted as very unlikely that he should be possessed of what seemed to be valuable treasure, he stated that the mules had only been entrusted to him to be conveyed from Jaen to Bedajaz.

These contradictions, and the suspicions of Juan de la Rosa, would perhaps have been insufficient to justify the detention of the man, but circumstances occurred which soon removed this difficulty. A crowd had assembled about the inn of Caracuel, where the magistrate had gone to examine the stranger, and some persons had noticed "Vasos de P. lata," &c. on the mules. One individual, more sharp-sighted than his neighbours, immediately suggested that the owner of the mules might be an emissary of Gomez, the lieutenant of Don Carlos, and that he was doubtless conveying treasure to some place or other, to serve the lieutenant's treasonable purposes. As, in the hurried shifting of the Spanish civil war, treasure had often been buried for a time, and afterwards lifted, the opinion of the individual mentioned at once found believing auditors. "He is an emissary of Gomez," cried the mob, and the magistrate was compelled by their clamours to take the stranger into custody.

At the same time, the bales were left untouched, and carefully locked up.

Putting faith in the statement of Juan de la Rosa, rather than in the suspicions of the mob, the magistrates of Caracuel did not neglect to send a messenger to Alicant, to inquire respecting Ciriaco Martinez. The answer was immediate and startling—"Ciriaco Martinez is murdered." The messenger also brought an order for the transmission of the stranger, who called himself Don Manuel de Basabru of Catalonia, to Alicant. This order was immediately obeyed, his guilt seeming beyond all doubt.

At Alicant, Don Manuel de Basabru was soon brought to trial. Besides the identification of Ciriaco's mules, and other criminatory circumstances, one man came forward in evidence, who had actually seen the murder. This witness was Juan Pacheco, a peasant of Monfort, the village adjoining the spot where Ciriaco was found. Juan de Pacheco deposed as follows:—

"At the end of last month, our *Barilla* plants were approaching maturity; and as the foxes are so fond of some parts of these plants that they sometimes destroy whole plantations in a night, it is necessary to watch them, and all the neighbours take the watch by turns. On the night on which it was my turn to watch, I lay down among some tufts of rosemary, in such a position that I could see, with the help of the moon, a large extent of country, without being myself perceived. I had not lain long, till I saw, very near me, a man whom I did not know, but who resembled the prisoner in form and stature. He was armed with a fusil, like myself, and it was my belief that he was one who had come out, like myself, to watch the foxes. In this impression I was confirmed when I saw him squat down behind some broom-bushes not far from me, and I was less heedful than I might have been in keeping myself awake. In short, sleep came over me, and I know not how long I continued under its influence. The sound of mule-bells awoke me, and the report of a gun followed immediately after. I raised my head, and distinctly beheld on the road, which ran close by the spot, a string of loaded mules, near which lay a man upon the ground, with another—the person I had before seen—standing over him, and apparently robbing his person."

Here the witness was interrupted by his examiners, who asked him why he did not run to the succour of the fallen man. The witness answered that "he was afraid of bringing danger upon himself," and was allowed to continue his narrative.

"The man upon the ground struggled, and I heard him cry to the other, 'Wretch! you will pay for this!' to which the robber answered, 'Yes, with the demon's money'; and as he spoke, he threw a large stone forcibly upon the head of the prostrate man, which appeared to kill him." The assassin then threw the body over the back of a horse standing by, and took it into the middle of the adjoining field. On returning to the road, the murderer tried to mount the horse, but it escaped his grasp and galloped off. He followed it for some distance, and then returned to the mules, one of which he mounted, and then went off hastily with the whole. These circumstances (said the witness in conclusion) I related to others on hearing of the murder of Ciriaco Martinez."

When these and other circumstances had been brought out, Don Manuel de Basabru still stoutly denied all participation in the murder of Ciriaco. Regarding the bales of goods, he returned to his first assertion that they were his own property. The judges confronted him with the merchant from whom Ciriaco had received them in charge, yet Don Manuel, as he called himself, persisted in his daring denial.

"Then what do these bales contain?" said the judge, pointing to them; "it is visible that they have never been opened since first packed up, but you can inform us what they contain."

"That is not difficult to tell, indeed," replied the prisoner boldly. "Any one who can read may tell their contents from the superscription which I put upon them, 'Vasos de plata y pala ora, cadenados de hierro y otros.' (Vessels of silver and virgin gold, fancy articles of iron, and others.)

The merchant who claimed the property, when he heard Don Manuel make this interpretation of the superscription, was seized with a fit of laughter, so violent that neither the seriousness of the case, nor the gravity of the court, could check him. "Ah!" cried he, when he had partly recovered his composure, "I should kill myself with laughing at this, had that poor Ciriaco Martinez but been alive." Then turning to the prisoner, he exclaimed, "Vessels of silver, indeed! say rather vessels of white iron: *vasos de latas*, white iron."

The accused stared. "But the P.; the words are *vasos de P. lata*!"

The merchant could not help laughing again at the

* The "demon's (or devil's) money" is a phrase common in the kingdom of Valencia, and had its origin in the following traditional story:—Two Moors, of the tribe of the Almoravides, were renowned in the eleventh century for their intimacy, and for their joint pursuit of the occult sciences. They were avaricious, and finally acquired so much power over the Evil Spirit, that he gave them as much gold as they desired, but only on condition that they retained their mutual friendship. However, the one killed the other, and fled towards Africa with the chest of gold which he had so won. But the fiend made holes in the chest, and the money dropped out. The coins grew into stones of various sizes, which retained something of their circular shape. They are common on the Valencian roads, and are yet called the Demon's Money.

confounded look of the accused, and the confession which his question conveyed. "The P. is an abbreviation of *Pulita*, meaning *fine*, polished white iron."

The prisoner stared still more wildly, but, heedless of the consequences, he proceeded to satisfy himself. "But the *pala ora*, the native gold!" said he. "Oh," replied the merchant, "the words have been disjoined by my stupid apprentice boy in writing the superscription. The last words are *pala cruda, cadenas de hierro y otros*; meaning altogether, 'coarse shovels, chains of iron, and other articles'."

The confounded prisoner, who, by thus misinterpreting the superscription, had been led to take away a human life, in the hope of acquiring valuable treasures, had nothing further to say for himself. The bales were opened in court, and he there saw the paltry utensils for which he had plunged into deadly crime. Though scarcely required, their testimony was conclusive against him. He was condemned to death.

The priest who attended him in prison, and on the scaffold, endeavoured to induce him to invoke the mercy of heaven. But he was never heard to utter a sentence excepting one, and that he repeated several times. "White iron!—it was but white iron! With the demon's money I killed him, and I have sold myself for the demon's money!"

THE SALMON.

DETERMINATION OF THE QUESTION RESPECTING ITS FRY.

THE history of the salmon in the earlier stages of its existence has hitherto, as is well known, been involved in great obscurity, although the elucidation of it was desirable not only for the satisfaction of men of science, but for the protection of the fish itself, as a valuable article of commerce. The subject has at length been cleared up, and in a way and under circumstances which, in our estimation, give its elucidation additional interest.

The individual to whom the public is indebted for this good service is Mr John Shaw, resident at Drumlanrig in Dumfriesshire, and who holds, we believe, the situation of head game-keeper to the Duke of Buccleuch, on his grace's estates in that county. Directed solely by his own intelligence, Mr Shaw commenced some years ago a series of experiments for determining the early history of the salmon. He in the first place constructed three ponds on the bank of the Nith, one of them, which we shall call No. 1, being twenty-five feet long and eighteen broad, another (No. 2), twenty-two feet long and of the same breadth, and a third (No. 3), fifty feet long and thirty in breadth. A rill of spring water, descending from the neighbouring hill side, and abounding with larvae and insects fit to be food for fishes, was parted into two streams, one of which fell into pond No. 3, while the other ran into No. 1, and thence passed on through a grated aperture into No. 2; the waste water from both being allowed to fall out through closely wired apertures, and find its way to the Nith. The arrangements were such as to make it impossible that there could be any communication between the river and the ponds, the bottoms of which were thickly bedded with gravel.

In January 1837, Mr Shaw caught a male and female salmon in the Nith, while they were engaged in spawning; and having pressed a quantity of roe or ova from the female, which he mixed with milt from the male, he deposited the ova, thus prepared, in one of the ponds. Fifty days after, namely, on the 23d of February, he "found the embryo fish distinctly visible to the naked eye, and even exhibiting some signs of vitality by feebly moving in the egg." On the 28th of April, they were excluded from the egg, when they measured about five-eighths or nearly half an inch in length, and had a small red transparent bag, like a currant, depending from the anterior part of their bodies. The temperature of the stream, at first 39°, was latterly 44°. To ascertain if a higher temperature was favourable to the development of the young fry, Mr Shaw, on the 20th of April, placed some of the ova in a tumbler in his bedroom, allowing a stream of fresh water to fall into and out of it; and the result was, that in thirty-six hours the fish in this situation were disengaged from the ova, while the others, as already mentioned, did not appear till seven days later. An accidental irruption of mud destroyed the fish produced in the pond about a month after their birth.

Some ova, prepared in exactly the same manner on the 27th of January, and placed in pond No. 1, became fish on the 7th of May. Of this family, Mr Shaw had drawings made at ten days, forty-eight days, two months, four months, and six months old, which are to be found in Jameson's Edinburgh New Philosophical Journal for January 1838. They show the creature in its growth from a shape in which the fish lineaments are scarcely to be discerned, up to the condition of the *parv* of our rivers. Between the family in the pond, and *parv* of the same size taken from the Nith, no difference could be discerned, excepting in depth of colour, the pond family being lighter, probably from the comparative purity of the water in which they were produced and reared. This difference, it may be remarked, is one which anglers are accustomed to observe in trout of various streams, the depth of colour being in every case determined by the comparative clearness of the waters. On this point Mr Shaw made a curious observation, which we shall give in his own words:—"In the course of my visits to the experi-

mental pond, which were as frequent as other duties would permit, I had often observed, that while the little fish remained stationary in any particular part of the pond, they were always found to be of a colour corresponding to the colour of the bottom, and when they removed to any other part of a different colour, that, after resting on it for a few minutes, they gradually assumed a corresponding hue. Wishing, therefore, to prove the fact of this assimilation by actual experiment, I procured two large earthenware basins, one nearly white inside, the other nearly black. I then placed a living fish in each, while at the same time I kept up a constant supply of fresh water in them. The fishes were of their natural colour when first placed in the basins; but they had not remained there more than four minutes till each had gradually assumed a colour nearly approaching to that of the respective basins in which they were placed. I next took the fish out of the white basin and placed it in the black one, and the fish which was in the black basin I placed in the white, and the results were uniformly the same—the fishes changing according to the colour of the surface over which they were placed. I next placed both fishes in one basin, when the contrast for a short time was exceedingly striking. With the view of ascertaining what effect the light had in producing this extraordinary change, I next allowed the fish to remain in the white basin so long as effectually to acquire the light tint, when I excluded the light from them altogether by covering the basin with a thick mat, and on removing it a few minutes afterwards, I found the fish were again changed to a dark colour, which gradually disappeared on exposure to the light. The change of colour is produced alike under a bright or cloudy sky. This singular phenomenon, with which I have only now become acquainted, adds another to the many beautiful provisions nature has made for the safety and protection of her creatures. The cause, however, is a problem I make no pretensions to solve."

At twelve months old, Mr Shaw found the parr of his pond family to be about three inches and three quarters in length, and exhibiting the ordinary summer aspect of the parr of the rivers. In January 1839, when they were twenty months old, he found them six inches in length, and still displaying all the appearances of ordinary parr. But such as were allowed to survive till the 24th of May, when they were two years old, although they had then gained only half an inch in length, "east of the liver of the parr, and assumed that of the salmon"—this change consisting chiefly in the following particulars:—the black opercular spots disappeared, the almost colourless pectoral fins became suffused with an inky hue at their extremities, the broad perpendicular bars or blotches on the sides were effaced, and the prevailing hues of dusky brown and yellowish white were converted into deep bluish black above, and into silvery white below. The family had now, indeed, reached the salmon state, and were ready to migrate like their contemporaries in the river.

These experiments, conducted under circumstances giving strong assurance against fallacy, were in themselves very satisfactory; but Mr Shaw conducted another of a still more decisive nature. Having observed the male parr in the river attending on the female salmon when she was engaged in spawning, he took some roe from a fish of the latter kind, and mixing with it some milt from a parr, placed the spawn in one of his ponds. The hatching and subsequent growth of the young fish thus produced resembled in all respects that of the other family; and the fish themselves were evidently the same. Naturalists, who have been accustomed to regard the parr as a distinct fish, might suspect this to be a mixed or hybrid progeny; but the supposition has been shown to be untenable. The males of the family reared in pond No. 1 were found, in November 1838, when eighteen months old, to be possessed of milt, while the females as yet exhibited no trace of roe, the one sex evidently attaining maturity in this respect before the other. This was so far a proof of the identity of the pond-bred young salmon with the parr of the rivers; but it was more clearly tested still, by the result of an impregnation of roe from adult river salmon by the so-called parr of the pond, when it was found that the hatching and growth and appearances of the progeny were exactly the same as above described. Mr Shaw also kept in one of his ponds the male parr he had taken from the river for his experiment, and found that, at the proper age, they assumed the migratory dress, and had become young salmon. A curious characteristic of the salmon family has thus been ascertained, namely, that the males are mature in one important respect while as yet very young and very small, and take a part in spawning before they leave the river of their birth. The disproportion of the number of males to that of females engaged in spawning, must be enormous; and the circumstance may be regarded as analogous to some similar eccentricities in the insect tribes; for example, the one female and infinite number of males in the bee-hive. No doubt, the arrangement is one rendered necessary by the circumstances in which the spawning takes place, and which has been looked forward to and provided for accordingly.

It may now, therefore, be considered as settled, that the young of the salmon, instead of migrating soon after birth, as heretofore supposed, remains two years in the rivers, and is the fish hitherto called parr,

and erroneously supposed to be a different species. From these facts most important consequences arise. "The belief that the salmon migrates the same year it is hatched, has created an indiscriminate slaughter of that fish, at an age when it especially requires the protection of the legislature. There is no fish in our rivers that takes the fly more readily; and every little tyro who can cast his angle on the stream, can reckon pretty confidently on killing eight or ten dozen per day. Where a salmon river, therefore, runs through a populous country, the destruction of the fry from this cause alone is incalculably great. It is true the legislature has made provision for protecting the young salmon for one month, namely, during the brief period it remains in the river after assuming the migratory dress, but for the two first years of its existence it is at present entirely unprotected."

The experiments made by Mr Shaw were overlooked at various times by some of our most distinguished naturalists, who have heartily given him the credit of conducting them in a philosophical and correct manner. His observations have been presented, on three different occasions, to the Edinburgh Royal Society, the last time in December 1839. They were accompanied by preserved specimens of the various fishes, adult and young, so that the conviction produced by them might be said to be complete. It was a pleasing sight to see a body of learned and cautious investigators, all of them of elevated station in life, according the praise of successful scientific experiment to a rural and untrained philosopher like Mr Shaw. The Royal Society has more recently done themselves credit by presenting to him, as a mark of their approbation, the Keith Medal of this year.

SOUTH-AUSTRALIAN EMIGRATION.

FURTHER COMMUNICATIONS FROM EMIGRANTS.

OUR readers will recollect the extracts which we some time ago* presented from the letter of Mr B—, a South Australian emigrant settled in Adelaide, and our promise to add extracts from any subsequent communication from him that might appear interesting to intending emigrants to that colony. By the kindness of a friend, we are now able to offer the following, which we gather from a letter written about a month later than the preceding. In this, as in the former communication, and also as in a private communication to ourselves (dated in September last), Mr B— writes in no flattering terms of South Australia and its prospects, and even expresses a doubt whether he shall remain permanently in the colony, to which, it is quite evident, he regrets having proceeded. But we let the extracts speak for themselves:—

"I think that the colony cannot by any means be said to be well watered. There have been few streams or rivers discovered which afford sufficient inducement to take special surveys on their banks—marking the acknowledged deficiency of water in general. Sheep-runs for the most part are watered by a string of pools collected from the winter rains. To save speaking so much as to water in general, which affords at best unsatisfactory information, I shall give you a few particulars which you will better understand. At the Port there is no water fit for use, and till within a week or two it was all carried from a well at Hindmarsh Town, upwards of three miles distant. It is now supplied, I believe, from a well about one and a half or two miles distant. While the Germans were at the Port, I have passed a boy and girl with their small barrel of water, carrying it along in the broiling sun, S— passed a week or two at the Port, on first landing, and had to carry his water himself; an exertion which he almost sank under. At Adelaide it costs two shillings a porter hogshead for water, from the stagnant pools in the burn Torrens; and those who have wells, have been obliged to go down sixty and eighty feet for water. On the Holdfast Bay, or Glenelg Road, there is a half-way house, at which a well has been sunk; and good water found at twenty-five feet down. At Glenelg, itself, there is a pool upon the surface which supplies a small quantity of water. This will give you some idea of the difficulty of obtaining water, where you will see the greatest possible need exists for it. We pay the above-mentioned sum for water from the Torrens, and have to boil every drop of it, ere it be fit for drinking—a great privation to such water-drinkers as both of us are. In a few years, I doubt not that all this discomfort will have passed away, and that Adelaide, by the art of man, may be as well watered as Edinburgh.† But I am speaking as to what *Nature* has done, and am bound to say, that she has almost forgotten the water, however well she may have supplied the land and climate. Settlers in the country will not experience so much difficulty in this respect, as their location will mainly depend upon the supply of

water; but in Adelaide, the want of a sufficient supply of good water is a grievous want indeed, and probably is the cause of much of the disease that prevails; dysentery being traced to this source as well as to cold, as already mentioned. As for showers, the colony has not been in existence long enough to enable any one to say what rain may be expected in the course of a season; it is stated that there is almost no rain during summer, and that it comes in torrents (during the night chiefly) for a month or two in winter. We arrived towards the end of summer, and have seen also a few weeks of what is called winter; but so mild is it, that it will pass very well for summer at home. We have been in all above four months in the colony, and I think it has rained only twice or thrice heavy enough to leave any trace of it the next day—in short, what you would call a very heavy rain; and there have been, probably, other five or six light showers. My limited experience, therefore, inclines me to think that there is a decided want of occasional refreshing showers. That there may fall, in a few weeks, during winter, rain sufficient to send forth a luxuriant vegetation, I have every reason to believe, both from the accounts of persons, as well as from the appearance of the native grass; but I very much doubt that getting showers during any other part of the year will have much effect upon cultivation. Irrigation, I am afraid, is what we must look to for supplying such a requisite."

As to servants: "Contracts made in Britain with servants, I understand, are strictly enforced here, and that a person who knowingly employs a servant under contract with another. Although such be the law, I think that a person would stand very much in his own light (not to mention the want of honesty) to engage any servant much under the current rate of wages given in the colony. The servant in such a case would not fail to think himself taken the advantage of, and would, of course, not perform his duty faithfully and willingly, without which it were better surely not to have him. Instead of attempting to screw him down to the lowest scale of remuneration, I think it would be for the interest of every master first to find out servants properly qualified for his purpose, and firmly to take hold of them, by giving them a stated interest in the success of their labours. This is the surest and best law that could have been devised for keeping servants to their engagements.

I do not think that it would pay to send grain or grass seeds here at present; ploughs are in abundance, having been brought by every farmer who comes here; and as none of them have been employed yet, you can get them, as you may suppose, at or even under the British prices. Mills for grinding and cleaning corn we have more than plenty of, until we have corn to grind, which as yet there is no appearance of having soon."

Next, with regard to wages, prices, &c.: "The wages at present given in the following branches of industry I have obtained from a source on which I think I can rely; but these rates must, you will easily see, be liable to much fluctuation, as such numbers of labourers in almost every department are constantly pouring in, and as yet few outlets for their labour in the country are to be found. I should expect for one thing, that the rate of wages in the different trades will bear a pretty close approximation, on account of the facility in the present state of the colony afforded for turning from one profession to another. For example, printers' wages are 15s. a-day just now; but suppose twenty additional hands to arrive to-morrow, it might be expected that the former rate of wages could not be maintained, as the new comers would offer to work for less wages. But they would not. They would turn bricklayers or shepherds, or almost any thing in fact, and would obtain their 15s. a-day also. According to the best information which I can obtain, there is only a demand at present for additional hands as sawyers and blacksmiths; but this of itself need not discourage any who otherwise wish to come, as the wages cannot soon be much reduced at the worst. At present, the expense of living is very great; indeed there is almost a famine. The four-pound loaf is 3s. 6d.; butcher meat, 1s. per pound; butter (salt), 2s. 6d.; fresh, 3s. to 3s. 6d. per pound; eggs, 6d. to 8d. each; oatmeal, 6d. per pound; potatoes, 6d. per pound, and other things in the same *Malthusian* proportion. But this state of things cannot last, I hope, above a month or two; indeed, a vessel or two have been sent to America for flour, and when the Americans find their way to us, we shall not want for food. A Hamburg vessel is at present in with a considerable part of her cargo stores, which will be sold by auction, and the result of the sale will no doubt bring us many more ships from the same place. Wages are—for brickmakers, 15s. per day; bricklayers, 10s. to 13s.; blacksmiths, 10s.; chair-makers, 13s.; house-carpenters, 10s. to 13s.; coopers, 10s.; compositors, 15s.; cabinet-makers, 15s.; dairy-women, L.25 to L.30 a-year and rations; fencers and field-labourers, 5s. a-day; glaziers, 8s. to 10s.; harness-makers, 12s.; joiners, 13s. to 15s.; house-painters, 8s. to 10s.; plasterers, 12s.; ploughmen, L.40 per annum and rations; printers' pressmen, 10s. to 15s.; saddlers, 12s.; shoemakers, 8s. to 10s.; sawyers, 20s.; stone-masons, 15s.; quarrymen, 10s.; tailors, 8s. to 9s.; wheelwrights, 11s. The above are all stated as so much *per day*, of course, unless otherwise mentioned.

Your next inquiry as to 'the general character of

* No. 46.

† There seems no reason to infer that this ever can be the case. B— must well know that Edinburgh is perhaps the best supplied town with water in the world; and water, too, of the finest quality.]

the settlers, and if they appear contented and happy, is perhaps nearly as difficult to answer as the former one. Permit me, however, to add, that if you have a definite idea of the question, you may also make something of my answer, which is in the negative. There are a few, no doubt, who are contented and happy, because they would be so anywhere; a number more may be in the like enviable state of mind because they are acquiring wealth beyond their most avaricious expectations; but I think the general character of the settlers is by no means contented and happy, arising, perhaps, in the first instance, from a feverish anxiety for making money; second, from a thousand different and opposite ways of making it; each one of these holding out a higher per centage than another, and thus fairly bewildering a person as to which he ought to choose, ending in general in doing almost nothing, or not doing the best; altogether destructive of mental peace and quiet; and that such is wanting in the general case, I can have no doubt; and I think the above-mentioned sources of discontent are sufficient to produce the effect. I need not add, that these operate upon all; but there are, besides these, thousands of other grounds of discontent applicable to individuals alone.

Your final question, as to 'the expediency of emigration, and the augmentation of capital likely to be thereby derived,' is one which every person must and can only answer for himself. The latter part of the question I have already answered to the best of my ability. On the first part, I would merely remark, that, to the best of my judgment, a person's motives for coming here (in the present state of the colony, at all events) should be for the exclusive purpose of making money. If he come with any other object, he is likely to be grievously disappointed. The class of people who are best fitted to succeed here, and least likely to entertain regret for leaving their 'ain country,' are those who have been brought up to a country life, and those in towns who have had their minds entirely engrossed with their own affairs, and the making of their fortunes, and who, providing they accomplish this end, let the world without and all its concerns go as it will. The letters from people here, which appear in the '*****', give, I still think, a one-sided view of things. These letters, you will find, emanate from *mere labourers*, or from people of *large* capital, both of which classes are no doubt decidedly better here; but those with *small means*—the small farmers so strongly invited to come here—will find themselves grievously disappointed. I do not say that their *limited means* and their labour will not produce much more here than at home; but the success held out to them is not to be obtained so easily as they are led to imagine, nor without sacrifices which rarely would be voluntarily made, if known before-hand. The small capitalists, as yet, I believe, have sunk to mere labourers in the first instance—they may rise again. This you can easily understand, as there is no *cultivation yet*; and the small farmer did not know what to make of his means; and after looking about him for a short time perhaps, and spending the most of what he had, was then obliged to work to keep himself alive.

Emigrants of all classes continue to come in great numbers, but I should not be at all surprised although a temporary check was interposed in the shape of a commercial crisis, to which I think we are rapidly hastening. We shall very soon have no specie here; it is all going out of the colony for provisions, &c.; and for a considerable time to come, we can have no exports to an extent capable of relieving us. Gold at the banks is at a premium of two and a half per cent. This is the effect of the universal land-jobbing, to the neglect of every kind of cultivation."

Such are the passages which we have thought worthy of quotation from the letter of Mr H—, who, though he may not be a comprehensive theoriser, is, we feel perfectly assured, honest in intention, and trust-worthy in his facts. Of the correctness of these we have no doubt, and are in some measure able to corroborate them by the following extract from a letter, dated Adelaide, August 25, 1839, written by a gentleman who emigrated from England, to follow the profession of a teacher in South Australia. It has been handed to us by a correspondent in Liverpool, who gives us his address.

"Five months elapsed from the period of our leaving the Downs, till we arrived at this place. We anchored in 'the Creek' on the 16th of May, but the difficulties and delays we met with were such, that it was not till the 22d July that I could open school. I have only seven boys; I am to open an evening school, and my wife a girls' school, to-morrow. This is the first letter that I have sent from this colony. I have always hoped the house would be ready at such a time, and the school the same; but if I were to wait till I can say whether we are likely to succeed or not, I may delay three months more.

I bought a four-roomed, weather-boarded house, from Manning, London, the price of which on board was £45; freight, £10; cartage from Port Adelaide (seven miles), £5; foundation, £4, 10s.; setting up, £15; chimney, £14; land, 150 square yards (including title-deed), £47, 5s. 6d.; shingles (wooden slates), and putting on, £16; pisé (rammed earth, pronounced *pee-zay*) walls for kitchen and school, £13, 10s.; roofing do., £18; painting and glazing, £16, besides school door and windows not put in yet; earthen and lime floor for kitchen, 18 feet by 6 feet,

and school, nearly 18 feet square, £4; whitewashing outside and in, £2; besides nails for house floor, and £2 for a deal and post, short sent by Manning.

It was five weeks before all the materials for the house could be got, as they were mixed up with forty or fifty other houses.

The captain was very kind to us during the passage, and also on coming to anchor. Finding provisions so high, he pressed us to become his guests in the cabin, for three weeks, hoping in that time our house would be ready for us; but we had to pay £1 a-week for two rooms for four weeks, and 8s. a-week for a shed as a kitchen for seven weeks; water, 3s. to 4s. a-week; wood for fuel, 4s. to 7s.; eatables, 18s. to 19s. a-day.

I have a promise of some more boys at the end of the quarter, and of four young men to begin evening school, at 3s. per week, including candles (2s. per lb.), ink (3s. per wine bottle), and pens. Boys and girls, £2, 2s. per quarter.

Most people are very much disappointed in this place; many who came out as cabin passengers have been very much at a loss what to do to exist; some have become carters (on their own account); some that had a talent for it, have undertaken jobs as carpenters, painters, &c. Several have laid out their few hundred pounds in building pisé cottages to let. So many ships are still arriving with hundreds of passengers, that both rent and provisions are extremely high. This colony has not produced grain sufficient for *one day's consumption*. In fact, there is next to a famine both here and in Van Dieman's Land; which we have been draining, as well as Sydney. Flour has not been under 8d. per lb. these four months past, and generally 9d. to 1s.; barley, 5d. to 7d. per lb.; meat, 11d. to 14d.; milk, now 5d. per quart, till last week 10d. to 1s.; potatoes, last week 6d. to 7d., now 4d. per lb.; turnips and carrots, 4d. per lb.; all other vegetables equally dear. Cheese, 2s. to 3s. per lb.; salt butter, 2s. 4d.; fresh, 3s. 6d. to 4s., now down to 3s. during the rainy season; salt, 3d. per lb. No fruit in general; now and then small apples from Van Dieman's Land, 2d. per *mouthful*; eggs, 4d. each; fowls, 6s. to 8s. each.

Now, at the best season for it, there is scarcely any grass within six or seven miles of Adelaide. I believe there is none in the colony with the blades close together. The surface of all the ground that I have seen, is either sand with a tuft of coarse grass, a yard or two asunder, or else it has the appearance of land that the sod has been pared off. Farming is out of the question with any but very large capitalists, as enclosing even in the cheapest manner is 1s. per linear foot. Wages, 6s. to 10s. per day; and from the great heat and long drought, the crop is uncertain. The town has the appearance of a race-ground, with booths and huts for temporary accommodation in all directions, and here and there a brick or stone house, and in one place a considerable village. In May and June the ground seemed all bare red or brown earth, or sand, with a few blades of scorched grass here and there. The river (as it is called), now towards the end of the rainy season, would require some caution to wade through it; but for two months after we arrived, it was in some places only two feet wide and three inches deep.

The population of this town is about 8000, and more are arriving every week. Land in town is £300 to £1500 per acre. Seamstresses get only 1s. per day and victuals. Many cannot find employment. Mechanics, &c., cannot always find full employment, and many have more difficulty here than in England."

It is impossible to read these letters without feeling assured that South Australia is a very different thing from what it has been usually represented. How far it may be suitable in the interior for sheep-farming, we possess no means of judging, and therefore on that point have nothing at present to say. We would fear, however, that the natural character of the country has been misjudged by those who first recommended it as the seat of a colony. Its prevalent want of water for the most simple domestic purposes, let alone vegetable irrigation, is a fact quite uncontested. At Adelaide, we are told, stagnant pool water sells for 2s. per barrel, and in most other places this indispensable article appears to be equally bad and scarce. Who, in their sober senses, we ask, would voluntarily proceed to a country so utterly deficient in one of the prime necessities of existence? But whatever be this natural misfortune of the colony, it is not less distressing to learn that there is universal dearth of every species of rural produce. It may be alleged that highness of the price of commodities, and highness of wages, are an evidence of a flourishing state of affairs; but this is a gross delusion as respects South Australia. No country can be said to be prosperous which does not produce within itself either the articles consumed by the population, or other fruits of industry by which these may be purchased from without; and we see no proof of such productiveness in the colony. It is true there is a system of money-making in Adelaide and its neighbourhood, but so was there in London from the Mississippi scheme, so is there at Crockford's and at every gambling table. The factitious run upon lots of land, purely for the purpose of selling them over again at a premium, may be a winning game to some, but in the end the losses must be great, and distressing in their effects. The "universal land-jobbing"

now carried on so briskly, does not add one penny of capital to the colony. The colony is in fact living upon England. Every mouthful of food has to be imported, and paid for in money taken from this country. Highness of price! Why, there is the same kind of highness of price in towns in a state of siege, when a pound of horse's flesh sells for a guinea, and a jug of water for a dollar. Such prosperity may be very agreeable to those who possess an ample supply of the horse's flesh and the water, but it is the very reverse to those who are condemned to be the purchasers. South Australia seems to be enjoying this species of prosperity. It is producing little for exportation in comparison to what it is compelled to import; its settlers, instead of pushing off into the country and commencing agricultural operations, or any other kind of industrial occupation, are employing themselves in gambling with each other in the article of town-lots; and its only apparent means of existence is the debarkation of fresh emigrants with money, which is immediately embarked in these wild speculations, and forms the principal fund out of which payment is to be made for the productions of foreign countries. This is surely a wrong state of things, which cannot last. It is not to be supposed that Englishmen will long continue to proceed to an unproductive region on the coast of Australia, for the mere pleasure of there spending their money, and living in an encampment of hovels. Cabin passengers, with small capital, we are informed, are glad to become carters, carpenters, or to engage in any kind of rude employment to keep themselves from starving; in other words, those who have not sufficient cash to game in town-lots become the servants of those who can. A more deplorable state of affairs is hardly to be imagined. Let us hope, however, that something will speedily be done to dissipate the pernicious spirit of land-jobbing which absorbs the attention of the settlers, and that they will have dispersed themselves abroad in pursuit of those means of profitable industry which the colony may chance to afford.

WILDE'S NARRATIVE OF HIS VOYAGES AND TRAVELS.*

MR WILDE is a young and accomplished Irishman, belonging to the medical profession, who in the autumn of 1837 accompanied his friend Mr R. Meiklum in a voyage in search of health and amusement to Madeira, the Canary Islands, and a number of places of note and interest on the shores of the Mediterranean and Levant. To perform the excursion agreeably, Mr Meiklum employed a handsome and commodious yacht, of 130 tons, "the Crusader," and the party being quite at their ease as to time, means the most advantageous were afforded for gathering an ample store of the most interesting materials for the work now before us. The result proves that the author made the best possible use of his time during his visit to foreign lands. The work is full of glowing and apparently faithful descriptions of what came under the writer's observation at the different places he visited in his excursion, mingled with a liberal share of information on matters of natural history and sanitary statistics. In a production so abounding in amusing narration, it is difficult to make a selection of any part more worthy of notice than another; we, however, venture on the following extracts in reference to Madeira and one of the Canaries.

MADEIRA.

Arriving at Funchal, the capital of Madeira, in the month of November, when we in this country are beginning to shiver with cold, he is delighted with the prospect which presents itself. "I had often heard and read of the beauty of this place, but it far surpassed all idea I had ever formed of it from description. The town runs along the edge of an open roadstead, forming but a shallow indentation in the line of coast, embosomed in limes and orange groves, coffee plantations, wide-spreading bananas, and thousands of the rarest plants and exotics. The hills rise in terraces, almost from the town, clothed with vines and the most luxuriant vegetation; these are studded with the lovely quinta of the inhabitants to a height of several hundred feet. A striking object catches the eye of the traveller, the Mount Church; a large white building, that stands surrounded by some of the finest venaticos and chestnut trees, at an immense height above the town. Behind this the mountains rise still higher, clothed with verdure, beautified by cascades and waterfalls, and their sides torn into ravines, which vary the landscape by their deep black shades, alternating with the brightness of the surrounding foliage. Above all, the bald tops of the Turhenias rise to a height of several thousand feet from the borders of the Coural.

* Curry and Company, Dublin. 2 vols. 8vo. 1840.

Our friend Mr Shortridge kindly offered us the use of his house, which we accepted; it is one of the best in the town, and is a good specimen of an English Funchal merchant's residence. The under part contains cellars, offices, and counting-house—above that are parlours looking towards the street, the windows shaded by cool verandas; over these are drawing-rooms, opening upon platforms that command a view of the lovely sides of the mountain; these, if one may so speak, are green-houses in the open air; the *hoya carnosa* clothes the walls; the *passiflora quadrangularis* hangs its glowing blossoms from the trellised roof; the *cobea scandens* and other creepers twist round every cornice, and the *Adiotropis* and *clea fragrans* perfume the adjoining rooms. Above are the dormitories, and the whole is crowned by a high turret, which commands the sea-view. The house of every merchant has a turret, with a good telescope, to sweep the sea, and catch the first view of any vessel bound for their port, or in which they may have an interest. It is, generally, the coolest and one of the best rooms in the house: for, being raised above the neighbouring buildings, it catches whatever sea-breeze may blow. Below are extensive yards, surrounded by offices, where the wine is stored, and the different processes of fermentation are conducted. Besides these, the merchants have, generally, country houses situated in the hills, at higher or lower elevations, so that the climate can be had of any temperature in those delightful retreats.

The town of Funchal is clean and well paved, with an air of bustle and business, and has a fine cathedral, and handsome public walks. Never was a spot more formed to cheer the sufferings of an invalid, to heal the wounded spirit, or reanimate the sinking frame. The dry and balmy air which produces this never-ending spring, makes the step buoyant, and raises the hopes of the sufferer, who a few days before left the choking fog, the rains and chilly damps, of the Thames or the Medway. Here all is sunshine; the green bananas, with their beautiful feathered tops, tell him he has bid farewell to Europe; the orange-trees hold out to him their branches laden with golden fruit—

'Green all the year, and fruits and blossoms blush
In social sweetness on the selfsame bough.'

Plantations of coffee-trees fill the spaces between the houses; the splendid coral-tree hangs over his head; and the snowy bells of the tulip-tree mingle with the scarlet hibiscus. If he wishes for exercise, he has the most inviting walks, and the most tempting shades to shelter him; wide-spreading plane-trees, and willows of gigantic growth, bend their slender arms over the streams that murmur from the hills. If he leave the town, and begin to ascend, the beauty increases, and the sea-view opens to his sight. The roads though steep are well paved, and the horses trained to an easy pace. On one side of the road, and sometimes both, is a little channel a foot broad; the Levada, by which the water is conducted to the different plantations from the hills, murmuring gently as it ripples by his side. He rides through a perfect vineyard, where in many places the vines are carried on trellises over the road, and the large bunches of grapes hang within his reach. Hedges of geraniums, fuchsias, and heliotropes, border those narrow paths, and shade him from the sun; myriads of insects with golden wings sip the nectar from these delicate flowers, and add the music of their tiny wings to the melody of the surrounding woodlands. The *ficus indica* clothes the cottages, which are shaded by the most magnificent chestnut and venaticos; the *seculia fulgens* and the Guernsey lily sprinkle the vineyards; the beautiful *capillaris teneris* creeps through the walls, and the *camellia Japonica*, now in full blow, adorns every quinta.

As he rises, the scene becomes still more varied, and expands beneath his eye. The valleys are covered with the luxuriant light green foliage of the yam (the *orum peregrinum* of Persoon.) The aloe and the agave border the enclosures of sweet potato; and the *phormium tenax* or New Zealand flax, grows to a great size; rows of enormous hydrangeas flourish at this height, but, instead of their natural pink colour, are blue, owing to the ferruginous soil, or to their elevation. Small dragon-trees and cedars appear among the quintas; and heaths and pines rise to the highest elevations. Huge prickly pears (*cactus opuntia*) grow along the cliffs and lower parts of the island; and as inherent is the vitality in this singular plant, that it is only necessary to lay a single leaf, with a few stones over it, on a wall, and it will commence growing. The fruit is much eaten by the inhabitants. The large zebra spider, peculiar to this plant, weaves its immense thick ropes from thorn to thorn; its cocoon is hung in the centre of this suspension-bridge; it is somewhat in the shape of a kettle-drum, and the insect incubates at night, sitting on the flat side of it; the cord of which its web is composed is so thick as to procure for it the name of *spidera fasciata*.

The fruit-market is magnificent, and is beautifully situated in a grove of noble plane-trees. Here, besides the usual fruits of Europe, the orange, lemon, grape, green figs, and pomegranates, we have bunches of the most delicious bananas, piles of guavas, custard apples, and alligator pears. This latter is the fruit of the *ziziphus perryi*; it grows to a great size, and when eaten with pepper and salt, is most delicious. The water and Valencia melons, with gourds and pumpkins of enormous growth, and the numerous tribes of circu-

bis, which costs hardly any trouble in cultivation, give the market a singularly rich appearance.'

Setting out on an excursion, he meets parties of peasantries in a different mood from that in which we behold persons of that class in Britain. "The morning was delightful, and the groups of peasantries, coming into the market, which we met along the roads, made it quite enchanting. Companies of eight or ten, in some places, sat under the umbrageous shadow of a pine, eating their morning's meal, or completing their toilette, before entering the town; others hastened along, loaded with the various produce of their gardens, consisting of bunches of yellow bananas, strings of crimson pomegranates, &c.; others carrying fowl, firewood, or fish, to Funchal. Each little party was preceded by its guitar player. The instrument is small, with wire strings, and much in use among the natives. At times the performer accompanied it with his voice, and the whole group joined in the chorus. The men were well dressed, somewhat in the costume of English sailors, with a little cap, not unlike a funnel, on the top of their heads; this is worn more for ornament than use, as it could not be the least protection against the weather. It crowns the head-dress of the women also, being placed over the white muslin handkerchief which covers the head, and hangs down over the shoulders; their gay chintz gowns, and scarlet pelerine, gave them an air of lightness, and added much to the picturesque appearance of the group. The Madeiraness, both men and women, are a very fine race, much more so than those of the mother country."

With respect to Madeira as a place of resort for invalids, Mr Wilde observes—"Far be it from me to say that the climate of Madeira can cure consumption; but this I will say, that, independent of its acknowledged efficacy in chronic affections, it is one that will do more to ward off threatened diseases of the chest, or even to arrest them in their incipient stages, than any I am acquainted with. A dry, warm climate, with a healthy and equable state of the atmosphere, are no doubt the most powerful remedial agents we are acquainted with, more especially for parts where only such agents can be brought into contact. It is a remedy for which, in many cases, we have no adequate substitute, and the discredit into which its sanative efficacy has been brought, is to be sought for, not in the remedy, but in the manner in which it has been prescribed."

After the most accurate investigation for several years, the annual mean temperature is found to be 65 degrees, and the daily temperature is now (November) from 70 degrees to 72 degrees, and seldom falls more than 3 degrees or 4 degrees during the night; and so slight are the dews falling in the town, that clothes are frequently hung out to dry during the night; the lowest degree to which the glass was ever known to fall, even just before sunrise, was 50 degrees. With so little rain or dew, it may naturally be asked how vegetation appears so luxuriant! Outside the town, and in other parts more elevated on the island, very heavy dews fall, and, in addition, vegetation is amply provided for by the quantity of water coming from the hills, which irrigates even the lowest parts of the island. Its insular position possesses many advantages over that of a continent, and this is here increased by the height of the mountains that rise in the centre. As the equability and comparative mildness of temperature experienced at sea, are greater than that on land, so is an island such as this, in these respects superior to a continent. I said before, that the temperature can be varied by ascending the hills, but this will seldom be required during the winter months, and few invalids remain in the summer when the sirocco prevails for a few days.

It moreover holds out a hope, that no other country can fulfil to the same extent, of LIFE to those remaining members of families, many of whom have been carried off one after another by hereditary phthisis. Cases of severe and protracted rheumatism may find the West Indies a preferable climate; and speaking from personal experience, I should say that asthmatic sufferers will not be totally free from attacks; but I must at the same time state, that mine were generally brought on by fatigues encountered among the hills, often at a very great elevation. No doubt many have been deceived by the promises held out of Madeira, and now rest beneath the cypress and orange grove. But who were they? Patients whose cases were so utterly hopeless that not a chance remained for them; and, besides the domestic inconveniences, the effects of their removal have been such that some have died upon the voyage, and others immediately after landing. I am happy to say, professional men do not now yield to the importunities of patients whose cases they look upon as irremediable, by sanctioning their removal to Madeira—an advice as cruel as it was useless.

That Madeira can prolong life, even under the most unfavourable circumstances, the case of the late lamented Dr Heineken is a proof. This gentleman came to the island when his case was pronounced, by some of the most acute physicians in Britain, as rapidly approaching to a fatal termination—yet, under those circumstances, he lived nine years in Madeira, certainly with the greatest watchfulness, until going one day to collect some fossils on the neighbouring island of Porto Santo, a storm overtook him, and he suffered all its hardships in an open boat; he returned next

day to Madeira, and died that night. He requested a professional friend to examine his lungs after death, and Dr Renton, who performed the autopsy, informed me that his astonishment was, how he could have sustained life with so small a portion of respiratory apparatus; hardly a vestige of one of his lungs remaining, and the other in a condition such as could not exist in this climate. The death of this gentleman is the more to be regretted, as he had done much to investigate the climate of the island. His life was spent in the furtherance of science—he died in her cause, and bequeathed to her the most interesting legacy he or any mortal can bestow, the tenement of his immortal spirit, that his fellow men might be enlightened and benefited by a knowledge of that fatal malady which had hastened him to an early death, as it has but too many of his countrymen.

Of the salubrity of this volcanic island, Sir James Clark has well said, 'When we take into consideration the high temperature of the winter, and the mildness of the summer, together with the remarkable equality of the temperature during the day and night, as well as throughout the year, we may safely conclude that the climate of Madeira is the finest in the northern hemisphere.'

For a further account of Madeira and its capital, we must refer to the work itself, and proceed to the author's account of his journey to the top of the Peak of Teneriffe, which is in one of the Canary Islands, a day or two's sail from Madeira.

EXCURSION TO THE PEAK OF TENERIFFE.

Leaving Oratava, a small sea-port in the neighbourhood of the Peak, he proceeded with his friend Mr Meikle on horseback, with two sumpter-horses to carry provisions, and a body of guides. The departure was at 10 o'clock in the evening. After some trouble, and encountering a great depression of temperature, the cavalcade reached the "pumice-stone plain," which lies at the foot of the actual Peak. And here it was that the novelty and sublimity of the scene made an impression on the party. "There was a peculiar wildness in the hour and the scene; the night was truly propitious—not a cloud to be seen throughout the intense azure of the starry vault above us; not a breath of air stirred around us; the full moon shone forth with a splendour the most dazzling, as she sailed majestically through the broad expanse of blue, barely allowing the stars to appear as they twinkled in her path, whilst an occasional plant would now and then start up as if to challenge her borrowed radiance. Before us lay the clear and boldly defined outline of the Peak, frowning in all the grandeur of monarchy, and the great rarity of the atmosphere showed every break and unevenness that bounded our horizon; all was wrapped in the most solemn stillness; the deep silence seemed to impress each of us, not a little increased by our momentarily decreasing temperature, which had now completely silenced our muleteers. The tread of the horses made not the slightest noise, as we wound our way across that weary plain, where for the first time I felt sleep come heavily upon me; indeed, I did doze for a few moments, and it was on awaking that I so forcibly perceived our loneliness.

At the end of the plain our horses were forced up a steep and rugged ascent, for about half an hour, when we arrived at the Estanza des Ingles, 'the resting-place of the English,' at half-past five o'clock, and although so closely muffled, our sufferings from cold were extreme, and our hands perfectly benumbed. This was the highest point where horses can possibly get up, and we only wondered they ascended so far. We expected to have found some sort of a resting-place here, but it was only a small enclosure, made by the fragments of some enormous rocks which nature has piled around it—and one of the most dreary spots that can be well conceived. The men set about kindling a fire with some bits of retama which they had carried up with them. The mercury in the thermometer was 36 degrees, and falling rapidly. We now had recourse to our blankets, in which we enveloped ourselves, and reclined against one of the sloping rocks on the outside of the cavern, our faces anxiously turned towards the east to watch the scene that momentarily opened upon us. In our then almost petrified condition, we looked as like as could be to a pair of Egyptian mummies laid against the rock.

Sunrise.—As soon as we had taken our place, we perceived a thin vapour rose-coloured tint to stretch along the eastern horizon; the moon was still full up, but she had thrown the shadow of the Peak over where we stood. As we continued to gaze steadfastly on this first blush of morning, it every second increased, especially towards the centre, extending likewise in length along the horizon. This hue soon deepened to a pink, and then followed such a glorious halo of colours, in which the flower and the metal lent their most dazzling lustre, as to baffle all attempt at description; and the hazy undefined light that ushers in the day, began to chase the moonlight shadows from the plain beneath. At six o'clock, the thermometer stood at 18 degrees, the light increasing, the cold intense, and the heavens presented a scene such as we read of in the arctic regions, being formed by the resplendent glories of the aurora, but with this difference, the most brilliant colours gathered here as it were into a focus. All the east presented a lustrous semicircle, which, if you took your eyes off for a moment, seemed to increase tenfold. Between the horizon and the spot on which

we stood, floated a confused sea, which we at first took for the ruffled bosom of the ocean, but it turned out to be nothing more than a thin white mist. At a quarter past six, the temperature fell as low as 15 degrees, and sunrise took place a minute after; he rose very suddenly, and his whole disc was almost immediately clear of the horizon. It was a glorious sight, and cheering, after all the cold and suffering of the preceding night, to see the great centre of light and heat come up to speed us on our way. I have often tried to form to myself a comparison of sunrise and sunset, and on this occasion have settled the question in favour of the former. Our guides reminded us it was time to recommence the ascent; and to fortify ourselves on the way, we breakfasted. Every thing we had carried up with us was frozen; the eggs were perfect balls of ice; we had also brought with us a bottle of coffee, which, having contrived to heat, proved the most grateful of all our refreshments.

We left the old man to guard the horses, and again set forward. Large masses of pumice, lava, and scoria, continue some way farther up to the small platform of Buona Vista, where there is a plant or two of stunted retama, and here the domain of vegetation ends. From this we climbed up a steep ascent, composed of detached masses of sharp rock basalt and obsidian, some loose, and others with a coating of scoria; it reminded me of a magnified rough cast. Our halts, as might be expected, were frequent. At half-past seven o'clock, during one of these stoppages, I found the glass had risen to 33 degrees. From the moment the sun rose, the heat began to increase, making us throw off our extra garments, and leaving them in the ascent. With a good deal of difficulty we at last reached the base of the cone, which crowns the summit; the effects of the last eruption.

It is much smaller and more perpendicular than Vesuvius; it stands upon a level platform, somewhat broader than its base, and rises like the great circular chimney of a glass-house to the height of sixty feet. Here our extreme difficulties commenced, for the fatigue we had already gone through left us but little strength commensurate with the ceaseless efforts which were to be put forth, and the exertion the task demanded. The external coating is composed of loose stones, lava, pumice, and ashes, in which we sank ankle-deep, and obliged us to rest every few minutes; we had each to strike a separate line in our ascent, as the composition is so loose, that if once set in motion, large quantities would come *powdering* on the heads of the persons who have the misfortune to be beneath. Here and there a few reddish volcanic rocks jut out, and afford a resting-place; but there are other whitish looking stones that seem equally inviting, but which are nevertheless far from being hospitably inclined, as a young friend of mine woefully experienced.

We reached the summit at half-past eight o'clock, and my first impulse was to crawl to the highest pinnacle upon the wall of the crater, on the south-east point, whence it slopes on both sides towards the west. This softata (or half-extinguished volcano) was more active than usual this morning; large wreaths of smoke proceeding from numerous cavities and cracks in the bowl of the crater. This was smaller than we expected, not being more than a hundred feet in the widest part; shallow, and the edge very irregular, of an oval shape, having a margin of dense whitish lava.

The view that awaited us on the summit amply repaid us for all the toils of the ascent. The morning was beautifully clear, and without a cloud; the finest that had occurred since our arrival. The whole island of Teneriffe lay in the most vivid manner like a map at our feet, with its white towers, its vine-clad valleys, and pine-crowned hills.

Immediately around the Peak, the mountains form a number of concentric circles, each rising in successive heights, and having it as a centre. It is this appearance that has not inaptly gained for it the simile of a town with its fosses and bastions. These are evidently the walls of former craters, on the ruins of which the present has been reared. What a fire must have come from the first of these, which enclosed a space of so many leagues! Or, again, how grand the illumination that once burst forth from the place whereon we stood, a height of nearly 13,000 feet, and which it is calculated would serve as a beacon at a distance of 200 miles at sea on every side. The crater or circle next below us appears to rise to the height of the Estanza des Ingles, 10,000 feet.

There are a number of smaller cones scattered irregularly over the island; their red blistered summits glint in the sun like so many mole-hills; the largest is towards the west; it rises to a great height, and is the most elevated point on the island next to the Peak itself. Towards Santa Cruz, the marks of recent volcanic action become less, the stratification more perfect. There is less appearance of lava or pumice, and the basalt assumes more of the columnar form. We could perfectly distinguish the few vessels that lay opposite the port of Oratava, a direct distance of thirteen miles, while the ascent is calculated at about thirty. So clear was the atmosphere, that our friends at the port could distinguish us distinctly with the glass. They had been anxiously looking out for us, and hoped, more than expected, our accomplishing the ascent. The Archipelago of the Canaries seemed as if stretched at our feet; Grand Canary was particularly plain, being immediately beneath the sun. Palma and Gomera seemed so near that you could

almost grasp them in your hand: and far away in the distance, Hieras seemed to mingle with the horizon."

The descent from this elevated spot was rapid in the extreme, and was fortunately attended with no accident to any of the party.

SKETCHES OF SUPERSTITIONS.

THE FAIRIES OF BRITISH SUPERSTITION.

AMONG the various supernatural beings to whom the ignorance and credulity of mankind have given an imaginary existence, the Fairies occupy a prominent place, and are especially worthy of notice. The characters of different classes of spirits have become so mingled and confounded together in the lapse of time, that it is difficult to define individual species with correctness and precision; but there is one characteristic which appears to distinguish the fairy from every other being of a similar order. Most spirits could contract and diminish their bulk at will, but the fairy alone seems to have been regarded as essentially small in size. The majority of other spirits, also, such as dwarfs, brownies, and the like, are represented as deformed creatures, whereas the fairy has almost uniformly been described as a beautiful miniature of the human being, perfect in face and form. These points of distinction, with a dress of pure green, are the principal ones which mark the personal individuality of the fairies as a supernatural race.

The origin of the fairy superstition is ascribed by most writers to the Celtic people, but the blending of the Gothic tribes with the Celts led to the admixture of many attributes of the northern spirits with those proper to the fairies. Thus, the latter race, which appears to have been intrinsically good and benevolent, has been gifted with attributes of the very opposite kind, borrowed from the Trolls and Elves of the north. In Scotland, and other countries where the Celtic traditions predominated, the fairies retained, in part, the original and better features of their character, and were usually called the Good Neighbours, or the Men of Peace; but even there, their character was deteriorated by a considerable leaven of elfin or dwarfish malignancy. This evil part of their nature caused much annoyance to mankind, and, more especially, their propensity to the kidnapping of human beings. Unchristened infants were chiefly liable to this calamity, but sometimes adult men and women were also carried off. The reason for these abductions is to be found, according to the authorities on this subject, in the necessity which the fairies lay under of paying "kane," as it was called, to the master-fiend, or, in other words, of yielding up one of their number sepulchrally into his hands by way of tribute. They greatly preferred on such occasions to make a scapegoat of some member of the human family. They also carried off young married women to be nurses to their infants; and in Ireland, at this day, when a young woman falls a victim to puerperal disease, the country people firmly assert that she has been removed for this purpose.*

The necessity for the latter kind of kidnapping shows the fairies to have been *family* people. They are always represented as living, like mankind, in large societies, and under a monarchical form of government. The Salique law seems to have had no countenance among them, for we more often hear of fairy queens than of fairy kings, though both are frequently spoken of. The Land of Faerie was situated somewhere under ground, and there the royal fairies held their court. In their palaces all was beauty and splendour. Their pageants and processions were far more magnificent than any that eastern sovereigns could get up, or poets devise. They rode upon milk-white steeds. Their dresses, of brilliant green, were rich beyond conception; and when they mingled in the dance, or moved in procession among the shady groves, or over the verdant lawns of earth, they were entertained with delicious music, such as mortal lips or hands never could emit or produce. At the same time, most of the legendary tales on the subject represent these splendours as shadowy and unsubstantial. When the eye of a seer, or any one gifted with supernatural powers, was turned upon the fairy pageantries or banquets, the illusion vanished. Their seeming treasures of gold and silver became slate-stones, their stately halls became damp caverns, and they themselves, from being miniature models of human beauty, became personifications of fantastic ugliness. In short, the Fairy Eden was a dream—a thing of show without substance.

* See "Residence at an Irish Watering-Place," in No. 357 of this Journal.

This is the general account given of the fairy state, but few of the legends on the subject agree on all points. From a very early period, however, every fairy annalist concurred in giving to the king and queen of the fairies the names of Oberon and Titania. Oberon is the Elberich or Rich Elf of the Germans, and was endowed with his modern name, as well as with new attributes, by the old French romancers, who represented him as a tiny creature of surpassing loveliness, with a crown of jewels on his head, and a horn in his hand that set all who heard it to the dancing. Titania was his wife, and resembled him in general qualities. She figures, though not under this name, in the tale of Thomas the Rhymer, one of the very earliest traditions relative to the fairy people. As the details of this story have formed the basis for almost all the subsequent fairy legends of Scotland, it may be worth while to give an abstract of True Thomas's adventure. It is scarcely necessary to tell British readers that this personage was a distinguished poet and prophet, who flourished in Scotland at the latter end of the thirteenth century. He is by Sir Walter Scott supposed to have been the author of the romance of *Tristrem*, remarkable as the earliest specimen of English verse known to exist. It is more certain that he was proprietor of Erceldoune, in Lauderdale. His predictions long excited interest in his native country. The following adventure, which we shall give partly in prose and partly in the words of an ancient ballad, befall this famous individual. The scene is the Eildon Hills in Roxburghshire.

True Thomas lay on Huntly bank;

A ferlie spied he with his ee;
For there he saw a lady bright,
Come riding down by the Eildon tree.
Her shirt was o' the grass-green silk,
Her mantle o' the velvet fyne;
At lika telt o' her horse's mane
Hung fifty siller bells and nine.

The saddle of this visionary beauty's steed was of ivory inlaid with gold, and she had a quiver of arrows at her back, while one hand held her bow, and the other led three beautiful hounds in a leash.

True Thomas he pulled off his cap,
And louted low down to his knee,
"All hail, thou mighty queen of heaven,
For thy peer on earth I ne'er did see!"
"O no, O no, Thomas," she said,
"That name does not belong to me:
I am but the queen of fair Elfland,
That am hither come to visit thee."

True Thomas became bold on learning that his visitor had not the awful character of divinity, but she gave him a candid warning, that, if he kissed her lips, he became her slave. Thomas was not deterred, and the consequence was, that though the lady was immediately changed into a hideous hag, he was necessitated to follow her. They entered a cavern, and after wading through pools of blood, and amid darkness and horrors, for three days, they reached a beautiful orchard, on breathing the air of which the lady became more lovely than before. She here showed him various sights, and finally took him to a gorgeous castle, the palace of herself and her husband. She at the same time commanded True Thomas to be silent during his stay in the castle,

"For if you speak word in Elfin land,
Ye'll ne'er get back to your ain country."

In the castle Thomas found knights and ladies dancing unintermittently, except when they sat down to feast on venison. The favoured mortal joined in the revelry, till, at the end of a period that seemed to him amazingly short, the queen took him aside, and told him that he had now been in the castle seven years, and that it was time for him to return home. "Know that our *kane* is paid to the fiend to-morrow," continued she; "so handsome a man as you would attract his eye, and I would not for all the world suffer you to be betrayed to such a fate." These words overcame the scruples of Thomas, and the queen soon conveyed him back to Huntly bank again. On parting, she gifted him with the "tongue that could not lie." To this he would have objected, and upon judicious grounds—

"My tongue is mine ain," True Thomas said,
"A gude gift ye wad gie to me!
I neither thought to buy nor sell,
At fair or tryst where I may be.
I thought neither speak to prince or peer,
Nor ask of grace from fair ladye.
Now hold thy peace," the lady said,
"For, as I say, so must it be."

The "tongue that never lied" gained Thomas, hence called True Thomas, great celebrity during his subsequent stay among men. According to the legend, he finally disappeared from earth, not in the way common to mortality, but in consequence of some remaining tie between him and the fairy queen. While feasting the Earl of March in his tower of Erceldoune, it was announced to Thomas that a *hart* and *hind* were seen moving slowly towards the tower, heedless of the people who looked upon them in wonderment. "This sign regardeth me," said the prophet; and, with the words, he arose from the board, joined the *hart* and *hind*, entered the woods with them, and was seen on earth no more.

The ballad of Young Tamlane, of which a perfect copy is given in the *Border Minstrelsy*, shows the manner in which, according to the popular belief, it was possible to restore to earth any individual who had been carried away by the fairies. Tamlane tells the lady who loved him, and to whom he appeared in the shape imposed on him by his fairy-kidnappers, that, in order

to recover him from their power, she must present herself at a certain spot on Halloween night, and that she would then and there see an unearthly band of riders pass by. He directs her to seize the rider whom she would behold mounted on a certain milk-white steed, and to pull him to the ground.

"They'll turn me in your arms, Janet,
An adder and a snake:
But hand me fast, let me not pass,
Gin ye wad be my mark.
They'll turn me in your arms, Janet,
An adder and an asp,
They'll turn me in your arms, Janet,
A hole that burns fast.
They'll turn me in your arms, Janet,
A red-hot god of ains;
But hand me fast, let me not pass,
For I'll do you no harm."

Janet is represented as having done her lover's bidding, and bravely endured these and other trials, for which she was rewarded by the recovery of Young Tamlane. By dipping him "first in a staud of milk, and then in a staud of water," she secured him from a repetition of his former danger. When such a trial as that of fair Janet is made, the heart must not fail, else is the kidnapper person lost for ever. "A farmer in Lethian (says Dr Leyden), who had lost his wife, set out on Halloween, and, in the midst of a plot of furze, waited impatiently for the procession of the fairies. At the ringing of the fairy bridles, however, and the wild unearthly sound which accompanied the cavalcade, his heart failed him, and he suffered the ghostly train to pass by without interruption. When the last had rode past, the whole troop vanished, with loud shouts of laughter and exultation, among which he plainly discovered the voice of his wife, lamenting that he had lost her for ever." The same writer mentions a similar but real incident which took place at North Berwick within the memory of the last generation. A woman died in convulsion fits, when alone in her husband's house. The distortion of her features, though only a consequence of her disease, led the ignorant neighbours to believe that she had been spirited away by the fairies. The widowed husband soon afterwards found it necessary, for the comfort of his family, that he should marry again, and had fixed upon his new partner, when, one night, his late wife appeared to him in a dream, and commanded him, if he loved her, to cause her body to be dug up, and certain prayers to be said over it; after which, she assured him, her corpse would start up, and, if pursued by a swift runner, might be caught and restored to his arms. [This was the approved formula for recovering a buried person from the fairies.] Harassed by his dream, the widower went to the clergyman of the parish, and applied for counsel. Being a man of sense, the minister advised the widower to have the banns immediately proclaimed for his second marriage. But ere this matter was completed, the widower had a second dream, in which his late spouse again appeared, and loaded him with reproaches for disobeying her. Again he went to the pastor, who "fell upon an admirable expedient to console him. This was nothing less than dispensing with the further solemnities of banns, and marrying him, without an hour's delay, to the young woman to whom he was affianced, after which no spectre again disturbed his repose."

Unchristened children, it has been mentioned, were peculiarly liable to be carried off by the fairies, who sometimes left little changelings, of their own blood, in place of the infants of mortal kind. Ben Jonson, in his *Sad Shepherd*, makes the tending and nurture of human changelings to be one of the favourite elfin employments.

"There, in the stocks of trees, white fays do dwell,
And span-long elves, that dance about a pool,
With each a little changeling in their arms."

Various charms were used in Scotland for the restoration of stolen children. The most efficacious was believed to be the roasting of the supposititious child upon live embers, when it was understood that the false infant would disappear, and the true one be left in its place. It is to be hoped, that this cruel and monstrous practice was seldom followed. The possession of what are called *toadstones* was also held to be an efficient preservative against the abduction of children by the fairies. In *Waldron's Account of the Isle of Man*, we find various stories of children kidnapped by the fairies. In one case, where a woman had given birth to a child, her attendants were enticed from the house by a cry of "Fire!" and while they were out, the child was taken from the helpless mother by an invisible hand; but the sudden re-entry of some of the gossips compelled the fairies to drop the child, and it was found sprawling on the threshold. The fairies, who seemed to have taken a particular liking to this woman's offspring, tried to carry off her second child in the same way, but failed again. On a third trial, they succeeded, and left behind them a changeling, a withered and deformed creature, which neither spoke nor walked during an existence of nine years, and ate nothing but a few herbs. It is to be feared that this changeling-superstition must have been the cause of much deplorable cruelty. That very member of a family, who from natural misfortunes and defects required the kindest tending, would but too often be neglected and wretchedly misused, on the plea of its being an alien. We may smile at many of the credulous fancies respecting the fairies, but there are in this

order of superstitions, as in almost all others, some points which strongly exhibit to us the baleful effects inevitably attendant upon ignorance of every kind.

To sleep on a fairy ring, as certain well-known circles of green grass are called, was sure to excite the anger of the elfin race, or at least to expose the slumberer to their malicious trickeries. In the last century, it is said, a poor man, having fallen asleep on a fairy ring on Peatlaw, a hill in Selkirkshire, was amazed to find himself, on awakening, in the midst of a populous city. His coat was left on Peatlaw; and his bonnet, which had dropped off in the course of his mysterious transportation through the air, was found on the steeple of the church of Lanark. The poor man was totally bewildered by his situation, and would have been in a serious dilemma, had he not met with a carrier from his native place, who told him that he was in Glasgow, and who conveyed him homewards in a much less expeditious way than that by which he had left Peatlaw. Dr Leyden remarks very meaningfully, that his abduction was "ascribed to the fairies by all who did not reflect that a man may have private reasons for leaving his own country, and for disguising his having intentionally done so."

A tradition, akin to the preceding one, existed in the seventeenth century, concerning an ancestor of the baronial family of Duffus, who, while walking in the fields, was carried away, and was found next day at Paris, in the wine-cellars of the French king, with a silver cup in his hand. Being seized and brought into the royal presence, he told the monarch, that, when in the fields in his native country, he had heard a whirlwind-like noise above him, with many cries of "Horse and Hattock," and that he also cried "Horse and Hattock" when immediately he was caught up into the air by fairies, and soon found himself in a wine-cellars, where he drank heartily, and fell asleep. It is said that the king gave him the cup and dismissed him. If there be any foundation for this story, one cannot but admire the cleverness of the rascal (possibly an English resident in Paris), who thus got rid of the consequences of what was probably only a drunken frolic.

As fairies lived underground, of course the operations of the mortals above sometimes interfered with the comforts of the subterranean residents. A Gallovidian gentleman, Sir Godfrey McCulloch by name, was once accosted, near his own house, by a little old man dressed in green, and mounted on a white palfrey, who told the knight that he came to complain of a drain or sewer which had been so formed as to "empty itself directly into his *chamber of dais*." Sir Godfrey was much amazed, but, suspecting the true character of his visitor, told him that the evil should be remedied. The knight kept his word. Many years afterwards, Sir Godfrey killed a man in a duel. He was tried, and would have been executed, had not the old man on the white palfrey appeared on the scaffold and carried him off. The Gallovidian knight was never seen again.

Numberless stories of a similar kind have been told relative to the intercourse of the fairies with mankind. Some of the poor creatures arraigned in Scotland in past times for witchcraft, admitted having had correspondence with the fairies. There can be little doubt that these wretched beings, whom the *torture* forced into the confession of some kind or other of supernatural traffic, were induced to admit an association with fairies, in the hope that this would be looked upon as less sinful than a league with the enemy of mankind. The trials of Bessie Dunlop and Alison Pearson, in the years 1576 and 1588, illustrate this statement. Bessie Dunlop avowed that her familiar was one Thome Reid, the ghost of a soldier slain at Pinkie in 1547, and who after his death seems to have become an inmate of Elfland. She related that this Thome Reid, who appeared frequently to her in the likeness of an elderly man, grey-coated and grey-bearded, wished her to go with him to the fairy country, and gave her herbs to cure various diseases. He even once brought to her the queen of the fairies, who, to the confusion of poetry, was a fat woman, fond of ale, and, in short, most unlike the Titania of romance. Alison Pearson also admitted her familiarity with the fairies, from whom she frequently received herbs for the cure of disease. It is remarkable that Patrick Adamson, an able scholar and divine, who was created archbishop of St Andrews by James VI, actually took the medicines prescribed by this poor woman, in the hope that they would transfer an illness with which he was seized to the body of one of his horses. Thisfeat, it was believed, was accomplished by the prescription. The unfortunate women who confessed these things were deceived in the expectation which led to the act. They could not so save themselves. They were both convicted, and perished at the stake.

It would be improper to conclude this paper without an allusion to the fancies of the poets on the subject of the fairies. Shakespeare stands pre-eminent in this department. His *Midsummer Night's Dream* is a poem of exquisite beauty, and one corresponding in every respect with the delicately fanciful nature of the subject. In *Romeo and Juliet*, he has also described an important fairy, Queen Mab, who has almost dethroned Titania of late years. Mr Tennant's *Anster Fair* has been of great avail to the fame of Mab. Whoever chooses to consult Drayton and the poets mentioned, will have the pleasure of observing and enjoying the exercise of poetical fancy of the highest

order on the subject of the fairies. We must content ourselves with this reference.

The superstitions now described are not yet extinct in the British islands. In Ireland, the Scottish Highlands, and Wales, in particular, the fairies are yet objects of general belief. Education has not yet shed its enlightening influence there, and by education alone can the darkness of superstition be dispelled. This is almost a truism, for superstition and ignorance are nothing else than equivalent terms. The spirit is abroad, however, which will extinguish this remnant of barbarism, and it is consoling to think so, for the ill that have flowed from this source are numberless.

THE SONG OF NIGHT.

I come to thee, O Earth!
With all my gifts:—for every flower sweet dew,
In bell, and urn, and chalice, to renew

The glory of its birth.

Not one which glimmering lies
Par amides folding hills or forest leaves,
But, through its veins of beauty, so receives
A spirit of fresh dyes.

I come with every star:
Making thy streams, that on their noon-day track
Gave but the moss, the reed, the lily back,
Mirrors of Words afar.

I come with peace; I shed
Sleep through thy wood-walks o'er the honey-bee,
The lark's triumphant voice, the fawn's young glee,
The hyacinth's meek head.

On my own heart I lay
The weary bane, and, sealing with a breath
Its eyes of love, send fairy dreams, beneath
The shadowing lids to play.

I come with mightier things!
Who calls me silent? I have many tones—
The dark skies thrill with low mysterious moans
Borne on my sweeping wings.

I walt them not alone
From the deep organ of the forest shades,
Or buried streams, unheard amidst their glades,
Till the bright day is done.

I bring them from the past:
From true hearts broken, gentle spirits torn,
From crushed affections, which, though long o'erborne,
Maketh their tone heard at last.

I bring them from the tomb:
O'er the sad couch of late repentant love.

They pass—though low as murmurs of a dove
Like trumpets through the gloom.

I come with all my train:
Who calls me lonely?—Hosts around me tread,

The intensely Bright, the Beautiful, the Dread—
Phantoms of heart and brain!

Looks from departed eyes,
These are my lightnings!—filled with anguish vain
Or tenderness too piercing to sustain,
They smile with agonies.

I, that with soft control,
Shut the dim violet, hush the woodland song,
I am the Avenging One!—the Armed, the Strong,
The Searcher of the soul!

I, that shower dewy light
Through slumbering leaves, bring storms!—the tempest—
Of Memory, Thought, Remorse:—be holy, Earth!—
I am the solemn Night!

—Mrs Hemans's Poems.

ANECDOTE OF A DOG.

There is a Scotchwoman who travels about our neighbourhood with a basket, of the name of Jane Stirraker, or Jenny Tysick, as she is commonly called. She owns a small dog that generally accompanies her. A few years ago, she had a young child which the dog was very fond of, being in the habit of lying with it in the cradle. But it so happened that the child took an illness and died. Jenny was at that time living at Hawkhead, but her infant was buried at Staveley. From the mother's distress of mind, the time, little notice was taken of the dog; but a. after the funeral it was found to be missing, not could any tidings be heard of it for a fortnight. But the poor mother passing through Staveley, thought she would visit the churchyard where the infant was interred; when, behold! there was the little dog lying in a deep hole, which it had scratched over the child's grave! It was in a most emaciated state from hunger and privation. It had been seen occasionally for some days in the streets of that village.—*Kendal Mercury*.

Scarcely a post arrives which does not bring us a number of letters from unknown individuals, craving information or putting questions on subjects affecting their own peculiar interests and prospects. Although very desirous to be as useful as we can in our humble sphere, it is utterly impossible for us to attend to the requests of these numerous epistolary correspondents. To do so in a satisfactory manner, would occupy a large portion of every day, and therefore greatly impede us in the performance of duties which are absolutely essential to the well-being of the present sheet. Some writers, more considerate than others, request us to answer their queries in the *JOURNAL*; but this is a thing which it would be highly imprudent in us to do. The pages of the *JOURNAL* belong to the entire body of readers—they contain matter designed for all; and we should consider it a dereliction of our duty as editors, to occupy the space of a single line with information applicable to only one out of the large mass of individuals whom we have the pleasure weekly to address. We make this general announcement, therefore, of our inability to comply with the requests of our numerous correspondents, and express a hope that the above reasons will be accepted as an explanation of our silence.

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